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Abstract

This collection cf research reviews summarizes investigaticns in the English language arts cn the elementary and seccndary levels. The 76 elementary educaticn research studies discussed were drawn frcm 55 jcurnals, frcm January 1968 tc December 1968, and are grcuped in the follcwing areas: summaries and listings of research, language, oral communication, written communicaticn, reading, beginning reading instruction, prcgram organizaticn and grouping practices, vccabulary and word analysis, factcrs affecting reading achievement, children's interests and literature, and special reading problems. The 45 investigaticns repcrted in the seccndary educaticn sectiон were lccated through the 1968 numbers of "Research in the Teaching of English" and are grouped under the follcwing topics: bibliographies and summaries of research, general English pedagogy, ccmpcsitiсn, language, literature, cral expressicn, and reading. (JM)

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A SUMMARY OF INVESTIGATIONS RELATING TO THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE ARTS ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY

1968

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WILLIAM D. SHELDON*
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A Summary of Research Studies Relating to Language Arts in Elementary Education: 1968

This eighth annual review of research in elementary language arts includes comments on 76 studies. Of this number the great majority deal with reading instruction, but there is an increase in the number of reports relating to the other aspects of the language arts.

Attempts were made by the reviewers to include all studies relating to elementary language arts reported in fifty-five journals from January, 1968 to December, 1968. In some cases judgments were made by the reviewers as to whether or not an article was a research study; any other omissions are the responsibility of the reviewers and are probably the result of faulty library searching.

Again, as in previous years, this review is presented under the sponsorship of the Committee on Research of the National Council of Teachers of English.

Research Summaries and Listings

A summary of investigations relating to reading was reported by Robinson, Weintraub, and Smith.[1] Their review included 310 studies grouped under six major categories: (1) Summaries of Specific Aspects of Reading Research; (2) Teacher Preparation and Practice; (3) Sociology of Reading; (4) Physiology and Psychology of Reading; (5) The Teaching of Reading; (6) Reading of Atypical Learners. In addition to the review itself, an annotated bibliography is presented.

Harris, Otto, and Barrett[2] reviewed 155 studies appearing between July 1, 1966 and June 30, 1967. These studies were treated under the following classifications: (1) The Sociology of Reading; (2) The Psychology of Reading; (3) The Physiology of Reading; (4) The Teaching of Reading.

An entire issue of the Journal of Education[3] was devoted to the concept of attention in education. Six reviews of research dealing with the concept were presented under the following titles: (1) Attention Research: The Case of the Verbal Phantom by David Mostofsky; (2) Attention in Brain-Damaged People by Leonard Dillar and Joseph Weinberg; (3) Attention and Early Learning: A Selected Review by Abraham Blum and Carolyn Adcock; (4) The Factor of Attention in Underachievement by John V. Gilmore; (5) At-

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[1] Helen M. Robinson, Samuel Weintraub, and Helen K. Smith, "Summaries of Investigations Relating to Reading, July 1, 1966 to June 30, 1967," *Reading Research Quarterly*, 3 (Winter, 1968) 301 pp.

[2] Theodore L. Harris, Wayne Otto, and Thomas C. Barrett, "Summary and Review of Investigations Relating to Reading July 1, 1966 to June 30, 1967," *The Journal of Educational Research* 61 (February, 1968) 243-264.

[3] *Journal of Education* (Boston University) Vol. 150, No. 3, February, 1968.

tention and Mental Retardation by Kenneth Crosby and Burton Blatt; (6) The Role of Attention in Psychotherapy by John Maes.

A rather extensive review of research on rate, flexibility, and study skills was written by Harris.[4] This effort views the research in these areas which has been conducted over several decades.

Weber[5] dealt with oral reading errors by presenting a comprehensive review of research in the areas of: (1) The Relationship between Oral and Silent Reading; (2) Classification Systems; (3) Variables Related to the Commission of Errors; (4) Errors as Indications of Reading Strategies.

The area of reading readiness was treated in a bibliography by Berger[6] which included information on sources for activities, materials and equipment, research and reflection, and a prediction for the future.

Denby[7] announced materials dealing with elementary spelling instruction which are available from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service.

A re-examination of two widely held assumptions about reading and listening was reported by Devine[8] in his review of recent research studies. He concluded that the findings are inconclusive on the question of the effect of listening instruction on competence in reading. The second assumption dealing with the high correlation between listening and reading test scores was also questioned. The author sums up the present state of knowledge by calling for the formulation and examination of a general theory governing the interrelationships between reading-listening and writing-speaking.

A review of research on the effect of questioning as an aid to reading was done by Frase.[9] He presented a theoretical model focused upon the range of behaviors considered to be critical for response-produced feedback control of reading behavior.

Groff[10] analyzed some of the research on reading and spelling and reported areas which show evidence of relationship between "phonetics and spelling."

The need for more information on the relationship between dialects and the needs of the schools was a result of a review of recent research on American dialects by Davis.[11]

Language

Shriner and Miner[12] examined the ability of two groups of culturally disadvantaged, preschool children in applying morphological rules to unfamiliar situations. A thirty item morphology test was constructed and administered individually to all subjects. No significant differences were noted over nine comparisons. The investigators cited a number of possible reasons for no significant results and then systematically found

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[4] Albert J. Harris, "Research on Some Aspects of Comprehension: Rate, Flexibility and Study Skills," *Journal of Reading*, 12 (December, 1968) 203-210+.

[5] Rose-Marie Weber, "The Study of Oral Reading Errors: A Survey of the Literature," *Reading Research Quarterly*, 4 (Fall, 1968) 96-119.

[6] Allen Berger, "Reading Readiness, A Bibliography," *Elementary English* 45 (February, 1968) 184-190.

[7] Robert V. Denby, "ERIC Abstracts and Indexes: Shortcuts to Documents on Spelling," *Elementary English*, 45 (December, 1968) 1061-1067.

[8] Thomas G. Devine, "Reading and Listening: New Research Findings," *Elementary English*, 45 (March, 1968) 346-348.

[9] Lawrence T. Frase, "Questions as Aids to Reading: Some Research and Theory," American Educational Research Journal, 5 (May, 1968) 319-332.

[10] Patrick Groff, "Research on Spelling and Phonetics," *Education*, 89 (November-December, 1968) 132-135.

[11] A. L. Davis, "Dialect Research and the Needs of the Schools," *Elementary English*, 45 (May, 1968) 558-560, 608.

[12] Thomas H. Shriner and Lynn Miner, "Morphological Structures in the Language of Disadvantaged and Advantaged Children," *Journal of Speech and Hearing Research*, 11 (September, 1968) 605-610.

each reason untenable in view of the controls imposed. They conclude that the label "culturally disadvantaged" may be a misnomer when relevant variables are controlled.

A study by Gladney and Leverton[13] dealt with the development of a model for teaching standard English to non-standard Eng ish speaking children. Subjects ranging from kindergarten to third grade were exposed to incidental instruction in "school talk" and "everyday talk" with emphasis on verb usage. Results indicate significant differences favoring the experimental group. However, perhaps the most striking point of this study is that the model for instruction encourages the teacher to respect and accept the children's dialect and, at the same time, aids the children in recognizing and learning to use standard English.

An investigation of the relationship between degree of syntactical language development and socio-ethnic status of beginning first grade children was done by Ruddell and Graves[14]. A test of syntax was administered individually to subjects in both groups—high socio-economic Caucasian and low socio-economic Negro. Analysis of error rate on all test items for both groups showed a significant positive correlation between error rate and socio-ethnic status. The authors conclude that the difference in error rate on familiar items is a reflection of the high socio-economic Caucasian group's exposure to standard English used by adult language models during the preschool years.

Shuy[15] determined the features which characterized the speech of different social groups, races, age groups, and sexes in Detroit, Michigan. By tape recording and analyzing interviews with 700 people from all parts of the city, the investigator concluded that (1) each social dialect had a structure adequate for its users and (2) specific phonological and grammatical features and processes which characterize different groups were observable.

Stevenson and others[16] attempted to study developmental changes in children's performance on an anagram task. A sample of 529 boys and girls in grades three through nine were asked to make as many words as possible using the letters found in the word "generation." At all grade levels girls performed better than boys. As the grade level increased, subjects produced a lower proportion of words whose letters appeared in the same order as in the stimulus word but a higher proportion of words whose letters appeared in a different order. The investigators concluded, "Anagrams is an efficient and productive means of investigating developmental changes in children's verbal processes."

An analysis of the types of concepts used by fourth through ninth grade students in written explanations of scientific terms was reported by Scriven.[17] By categorizing responses as quality type (value-oriented), process type (function), or structure type (factual characteristics); it was found that children of high intelligence explained meaning with more process concepts while students of low intelligence used a higher

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[13] Mildred R. Gladney and Lloyd Leverton, "A Model for Teaching Standard English to Non-Standard English Speakers," *Elementary English*, 45 (October, 1968) 758-763.

[14] Robert B. Ruddell and Barbara W. Graves, "Socio-ethnic Status and the Language Achievement of First-Grade Children," *Elementary English*, 45 (May, 1968) 635-642.

[15] Roger W. Shuy, Detroit Speech: Careless, Awkward, and Inconsistent, or Systematic, Graceful, and Regular," *Elementary English*, 45 (May, 1968) 565-569.

[16] Harold W. Stevenson, Robert E. Klein, Gordon A. Hale, and Leon K. Miller, "Solution of Anagrams, A Developmental Study," *Child Development*, 39 (September, 1968) 905-912.

[17] Eldon G. Scriven, "An Analysis of the Types of Concepts Used by Fourth Through Ninth Graders to Explain Meaning," *The Journal of Educational Research*, 62 (December, 1968) 153-156.

number of quality types. No sex differences were noted; as students advanced through the grade they used more concepts to explain each task and more process concepts to explain each of the terms. It should be noted that although children of different intelligence levels do not communicate the same kinds of meaning about identical terms, they still are exposed to similar instruction and materials and the same expectancies are made of them by teachers.

The attention of the reader of this review is called to the *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior* published bimonthly by Academic Press. During 1968 approximately 200 studies on verbal learning, human memory, psycholinguistics, and other related verbal processes were reported. Although too numerous to review here, it is suggested that the reader or researcher concerned with basic studies in verbal learning consult the journal.

Oral Communication

Only one study dealing with oral communication of elementary level children was reported. Reddin[18] examined school records and conducted interviews with 48 good listeners and 48 poor listeners in grades four through six. Significant results included: (1) intelligence was higher in the good listener group; (2) more good listeners than poor listeners participated in musical activities; (3) poor listeners had more scores significantly below grade norms on achievement tests (not specified) than did good listeners. The possibility of intelligence differences between the two groups was considered.

Written Communication

Composition

An attempt to determine the effect of systematic oral language exercises on the writing of fourth-grade subjects in a typical suburban middle class school was conducted by Miller and Ney.[19] Twenty-six subjects in the experimental group received predetermined amounts of oral language drilling using exercises designed to foster transfer of training to writing while twenty-four control students experienced a normal course of studies—reading and writing free compositions. Effectiveness of oral drill was determined on pre- and post-tests using procedures devised by O'Donnell, Griffin and Norris; analysis of compositions was done by employing the technique developed by Kellogg W. Hunt. The effect of the experimental program is summarized in the three statements which follow: (1) students who participated in the systematic oral language exercises wrote with greater freedom and facility; (2) experimental subjects who practiced certain structures in their oral and written forms used these structures significantly more often than did control subjects; (3) students who practiced putting together sentences in oral and written forms so that simple sentences were changed to complex structures used a greater number of complex sentences.

Sharples[20] classified the individual originality evidenced in children's responses to creative writing stimuli by eliciting four compositions from each of seventy-seven ten year old students. The stimuli included a picture of two children at the seashore, a verse describing a winter scene, the sound of a loud metallic crash, and the sight and touch of a large rusty key. Results indicated significant differences in the content of the responses to each of the four stimuli. Girls

[18] Estoy Reddin, "Characteristics of Good and Poo (March, 1968) 109-113.

[19] Barbara D. Miller and James W. Ney, "The Eff of Systematic Oral Exercises on the Writing of Fourth-Grade Students," *Research in the Teaching of English* 2 (Spring, 1968) 44-61.

[20] Derek Sharples, "The Content of Creative Writing," *Elementary School Journal*, 68 (May, 1968) 419-426.

wrote more clearly structured material while boys wrote more expository material. Achievement in school did not seem to be related to the content of the creative samples analyzed.

The effect of instruction in the musical, or prosodic, elements of poetry on the writing of subjects in fifteen intermediate grade classrooms was determined by Duffy.[21] He reported the results of three studies in which the experimental groups received instruction in addition to the typical treatment experienced by the control group. No significant differences were noted in the first two studies. The third study, reporting a trend toward better poetry-writing on the part of the experimental subjects, was probably caused by the investigator working more closely with the teacher.

A study designed to examine differences in mode of discourse was unique in that the subjects were ninety-two first grade students. Anderson and Bashaw[22] collected two descriptive themes and two argumentative themes from each subject after a treatment involving ten-minute discussion periods. The results indicated that the argumentative discussion had relatively little effect as compared to the descriptive discussion and the authors suggested that children may not be advanced enough, from a developmental standpoint, to benefit from the argumentative discussion.

Biberstine[23] analyzed the compositions of 352 fourth grade children in an attempt to determine if they write about their problems. The compositions were written under timed conditions in response to a stimulus paragraph and then examined for expressions of situations that the children wanted to change or deficiencies they wanted to overcome. In classifying the problems noted under five general areas—school, world, personal, home, or miscellaneous—it was found that 81.3% of the students mentioned a total of 498 problems or 1.73 per paper.

Spelling

Two studies dealing with the differences between good and poor spellers on choice discrimination problems concerning the probability texture of English were reported by Wallace, Klein, and Schneider.[24] They hypothesized that given the choice between alternative spellings of a word, improbable letter combinations should be rejected in favor of highly probable ones. Subjects in the first study were 36 poor spellers and 88 good spellers in the fifth grade; the second study included 70 good spellers and 59 poor spellers in grade eight. For both studies, 120 five-letter nonsense words were arranged at varying levels of approximation to English. Four levels were employed with 30 words at each level. Sixty pair of stimuli were given as a group test in which the subjects were asked to select one word of the pair that looked most like an English word. Analysis of data from both studies showed similar results with good spellers superior to poor spellers in number of correct choices (approximation to an English word). It was also noted that the differences between good and poor spellers were less significant at the extremes of levels of item difficulty than they were on choices of moderate difficulty. The authors state that the results lend some sup-

[21] Gerald G. Duffy, "Insights on the Teaching of Poetry-Writing," *Elementary School Journal*, 69 (October, 1968) 32-37.

[22] Harry E. Anderson, Jr. and W. L. Bashaw, "An Experimental Study of First Grade Theme Writing," *American Educational Research Journal*, 5 (March, 1968) 239-247.

[23] Richard D. Biberstine, "Fourth Graders Do Write About Their Problems," *Elementary English*, 45 (October, 1968) 731-735.

[24] John Wallace, Robert Klein, and Phillip Schneider, "Spelling Ability and the Probability Texture of English," *The Journal of Educational Research*, 61 (March, 1968), 315-319.

port to the hypothesis that spelling achievement at least partially reflects increased knowledge of the probability texture of the language. They warn, however, that this interpretation must be advanced with caution.

Fishman, Keller, and Atkinson [25] studied conditions of massed and distributed practice for fifth grade subjects by using computerized spelling drills. The distributed condition consisted of two sets of three words each presented once every other day over a period of six days. Learning trials on six other sets of words were massed so that all of the trials for the set occurred on the same day. Analysis indicated that the probability of a correct response for words in the massed condition was higher than that for the distributed condition during the learning sessions. However, on retention tests given ten and twenty days later the words learned under the distributed practice condition were better remembered. A mathematical model of the learning process is presented by the authors and is shown to provide a rather adequate account of the experimental data.

Handwriting

A study of three alternative treatments designed to promote more legible handwriting by third and fourth grade pupils was carried out by Klausmeer and others.[26] Subjects were randomly assigned to one of the three instructional procedures (formal, formal-individualized, or individualized–diagnostic) and were given fifteen minutes of daily handwriting instruction for a nine-week period. The most legible handwriting of the third graders was produced by the individualized diagnostic group; the formal group showed the most legible handwriting at the fourth grade level. No significant differences in writing speed were noted. The authors conclude, "Perhaps maximum benefit is derived from individualized handwriting instruction only if it is provided early in the sequence of cursive writing skill development."

Studies in Reading

Pre-kindergarten Programs

Smith[27] compared intellectual differences of poverty area children at the end of a full year of a pre-kindergarten program with a comparable group which did not have that experience. Comparisons were made on chronological age, mental age from the *Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test,* I.Q. from the *Stanford-Binet,* and sex. The group having had the pre-kindergarten program was significantly higher in mental age and I.Q. than the non-program group with virtually all of the difference accounted for by the girls of the program group. There were only slight differences between program boys, non-program boys, and non-program girls favoring the program boys. The author stated possible psycho-social readiness hypotheses to account for the differences and suggested the need for further research.

Preschool Reading and Readiness Activities

An examination of the relationship between certain non-cognitive variables and reading readiness among entering first

[25] Elizabeth Jane Fishman, Leo Keller, and Richard C. Atkinson, "Massed Versus Distributed Practice in Computerized Spelling Drills," *Journal of Educational Psychology,* 59 (August, 1968) 290-296.

[26] Herbert J. Klausmeer, William L. Goodwin, Gleen E. Tagatz, Wayne R. Otto, and Doris M. Cook, "Effect of Three Methods of Instruction Upon the Handwriting Performance of Third and Fourth Graders," *American Educational Research Journal,* 5 (January, 1968) 81-90.

[27] Marshall P. Smith, "Intellectual Differences in Five-Year-Old Underprivileged Girls and Boys With and Without Pre-kindergarten School Experience," *The Journal of Educational Research* 61 (April, 1968) 348-350.

grade children of varying backgrounds was done by Henderson and Long[28]. They found that the best predictors of readiness were preschool education ($r = .50$), teachers' ratings ($r = .39$), and chronological age ($r = .32$). Also related to higher readiness scores were three self-concept variables and two family variables.

The effectiveness of a two month reading readiness treatment in kindergarten was the focus of a study reported by Silberberg and others.[29] It was found that the effects of the training in readiness were negligible as determined by the subjects' performance on the *Gates Reading Readiness Tests*. However, by measuring achievement at the end of grade one and examining the subtest scores of the readiness measure, it was noted that the letters and numbers subtest alone was nearly as efficient a predictor of first year performance as were all five subtest scores.

Scott[30] measured the relationship between children's seriation test scores in kindergarten and their second grade achievement as observed on the *California Achievement Test*. The experimental seriation test, containing two subtest scales—Trial and Error and Operational, was devised by the author and several colleagues. On Trial and Error tasks, children were permitted to manipulate illustrated cutouts and paste them in the test booklet; Operational items required children to mediate and then designate responses by marking the test booklet. The results included significant correlations between reading achievement and the seriation test scores of the subjects.

The efficiency of the Frostig program when used with culturally deprived children in a reading readiness program was the purpose of a study by Alley and others.[31] After an eight month treatment the experimental group was found to exhibit superiority over the control group on eleven of the thirteen test variable means noted on the Frostig *Developmental Test of Visual Perception*. In spite of the fact that only one of the eleven mean differences was significant the authors conclude that the Frostig program is of benefit in a reading readiness program for culturally deprived, kindergarten children.

Beginning Reading Instruction

Proponents of the value of kindergarten experience for disadvantaged children will find support in the study of Morrison and Harris[32] in which they analyzed the effect of kindergarten experience on the later reading of disadvantaged children. This study was a splinter of the original CRAFT project conducted by Harris and others as part of the national USOE first grade study. The results suggested that at the first grade level, all but one of twenty-one comparisons of performance favored those who attended kindergarten while at the end of second grade, eleven of fourteen comparisons and at the end of third grade, four of fourteen comparisons favored those children attending kindergarten on a significant level. In view of the continued debate concerning the value of pre-first grade education, more

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[28] Edmund H. Henderson and Barbara H. Long, "Correlations of Reading Readiness Among Children of Varying Background," *The Reading Teacher*, Vol. 22 No. 1, (October, 1968), pp. 40-44.

[29] Norman Silberberg, Iver Iversen, Margaret Silberberg, "The Predictive Efficiency of the Gates Reading Readiness Tests," *Elementary School Journal*, 68 (January) 213-215.

[30] Ralph Scott, "Perceptual Readiness as a Predictor of Success in Reading," *The Reading Teacher*, Vol. 22, No. 1 (October 1968) pp 36-39.

[31] Gordon Alley, William Snider, James Spencer, and Roland Angell, "Reading Readiness and the Frostig Training Program," *Exceptional Children*, 35 (September, 1968) 68-70.

[32] Coleman Morrison and Albert J. Harris, "Effect of Kindergarten on the Reading of Disadvantaged," *The Reading Teacher*, Vol. 22, No. 1 (October, 1968) pp. 4-9.

specific studies on the contribution the kindergarten can make need to be made, particularly related to the language development of disadvantaged children.

A limited study[33] of the performance of beginning first grade pupils on pre-reading visual and auditory discrimination tasks related to socio-economic level and sex confirmed what is generally accepted in that girls perform certain discrimination tasks significantly better than boys of similar overall ability and that pre-reading abilities are closely related with socio-economic status.

Zaruba[34] studied the predictive value of three measures of reading readiness and maturity, i.e. letter recognition, draw-a-man and the subjective appraisal of a first grade teacher and found that letter recognition had the greatest value for predicting first grade reading success. This study also confirmed that the subjective appraisal of teachers is a useful predictor. This study adds to the knowledge which has been contributed to by others, that we can predict success in reading by a device as simple as letter recognition.

Studies continue to be reported which compare methods and materials for primary reading instruction. We find that programmed instruction is being used increasingly as one of the procedures. It is apparent that researchers are not content to accept the findings of the USOE first grade studies which seem to suggest that influences other than methods or materials account for the success of children in learning to read.

A comparison was reported by Ellson, Harris and Barber[35] of the effectiveness of programmed tutoring versus directed tutoring when used to supplement beginning reading instruction in center city schools. Four groups of 60 first grade pupils were tutored throughout the year, two groups by one procedure and two by the other. The results as reported were not precise but it is evident from the study that tutoring of beginning readers by non-professionals can make a significant contribution to reading achievement. Not all the tutoring treatments were effective, however, as success depended upon kind and amount of tutoring as well as the characteristics of the children tutored. The programmed tutoring, which was highly controlled in terms of teaching procedures and content, resulted in significant improvement, with the greatest benefit for the poor readers. It was suggested that the effectiveness of the tutoring depended upon the closeness of the coordination between tutors and classroom teachers.

The effectiveness of the use of the Language Master as a prompting and reinforcing device compared to the usual teacher-text procedure was conducted by Warner[36] in a study of the introduction of initial consonants of words and later success in oral and silent reading. The results favored the teacher-text approach but it was noted that more teacher time was needed to achieve the differential. It was concluded that for first grade children direct teacher aid in prompting and reinforcement was more effective than using a mechanical device because of the ability of the teacher to provide a social condition and a correc-

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[33] W. Paul Mortenson, "Selected Pre-reading Tasks, Socio-economic Status and Sex," *The Reading Teacher*, Vol. 22, No. 1, (October, 1968) pp. 45-49.

[34] Elizabeth A. Zaruba, "Objective and Subjective Evaluation at Grade One," *The Reading Teacher*, Vol. 22, No. 1 (October, 1968) pp. 50-54.

[35] D. G. Ellson, Phillip Harris, and Larry Barber. "A Field Test of Programmed and Directed Tu'oring," *Reading Research Quarterly*, 3 (Spring, 1968) 307-367.

[36] Delores Warner, "A Beginning Reading Program With Audio-Visual Reinforcement: An Experimental Study," *The Journal of Educational Research*, 61 (January, 1968) 230-233.

tion of error which the machine could not. It does seem obvious, however, that machines such as the Language Master can contribute to the independent learning of children. This does not rule out the need for teacher participation in encouraging children to learn and to help correct or prevent errors in responses.

The use of Computed Assisted Instruction in teaching first grade pupils to read was demonstrated by Atkinson[37] during the 1966-67 school year. The CAI system was designed to present instructional material to 16 children simultaneously, allowing each child to work on a different set of reading materials. The average pupil took 30 minutes to complete one of 200 lessons while the time ranged from 10 minutes with bright children to two hours for slow learning children. Analysis of test results suggests that children receiving CAI performed significantly better than those receiving conventional reading instruction as measured by the *California Achievement Test*. Further studies of the effectiveness of the CAI program continue and will be reported after June 1969. CAI and IPI (Individualized Prescribed Instruction) are becoming increasingly popular and additional studies will indicate in which areas of learning the computer and programmed instruction will be most effective.

A study reminiscent of the first grade studies compared the effect on first grade reading achievement of three basal reading programs which differed in their emphasis on phonics instruction. The program with the heaviest phonics approach was significantly better in terms of reading achievement in all but one measure than the program with less phonics and in all measures with the program that used a whole word approach. Teacher effectiveness and actual teaching practices in the three classrooms were not discussed.[38] Pretesting indicated that poorest achieving students scored lowest and best achievers highest which suggests a bias in ability to learn for the phonics group. The sampling procedures were questionable and assignment to teaching methods was by teacher choice rather than random assignment.

A study by Neville[39] of the effects of oral and echoic responses involved 110 first grade pupils randomly assigned to one of the following three treatment groups: The standard silent reading of pre-primer followed by listening to a page read orally by a pupil in the group; an oral reading by the group in which each page was read orally in unison twice and silently a third time; and an "echoic" group which listened as the experimentor read each page, then the group read the page orally along with the experimentor and then read silently. Testing indicated that the echoic groups read more fluently (orally) with better time and fewer errors than other groups. Echoic and oral reading groups read silently with less vocalization. No significant differences were found among the groups in word recognition or comprehension. The study suggests that some of the criticisms related to the negative effects of oral reading are not substantiated in this study and that an echoic approach to early beginning teaching might be useful.

In a followup study of second grade reading achievement of first grade pupils participating in an experiment comparing

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[37] Richard C. Atkinson, "The Role of the Computer in Teaching Initial Reading," *Childhood Education*, 44 (March, 1968) 464-70.

[38] Marion Potts and Carl Savino, "The Relative Achievement of First Graders Under Three Different Reading Programs," *The Journal of Educational Research*, 61 (July-August, 1968) 447-450.

[39] Mary H. Neville, "Effects of Oral and Echoic Responses in Beginning Reading," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 59 (October, 1968) 362-369.

the effect of ITA and TO, Chasnoff[40] reported no significant differences between experimental and control groups with respect to scores on a standardized test of language ability or of ratings of writing samples. While the study is too limited to clarify the value of ITA over TO it is one of the few to suggest that TO children can write as successfully as ITA students at the end of the second grade. It would be instructive to know at what point TO pupils approach the fluency in writing of ITA pupils if the latter pupils did not have the advantage in writing usually reported by ITA experimentors.

Crisuolo[41] reports an interesting comparison of two procedures for using basal readers with disadvantaged third grade pupils. In the one approach the teachers utilized the enrichment materials suggested in the manuals while in the other the teachers did not use the enrichment materials but covered more pages in the basal texts in the time saved. Analysis of pre- and post-test scores revealed that pupils using the enrichment materials scored significantly higher than those who covered more text pages.

In another methods and materials study, Dodds[42] compared the effect of teaching *Words in Color* phonics with a standard basic reading program over the first and second grade with 50 children, 38 of whom were included in the statistical treatment. The *Words in Color* approach proved significantly superior at the end of both grade levels in terms of vocabulary and spelling test results. There was no significant difference at either level in tested reading comprehension. It was suggested that the basal reader program yielded superior results in comprehension because of workbook exercises in comprehension not provided in the phonics program. In an indirect way the study suggests that an eclectic approach to reading instruction emphasizing phonics but also including direct instruction in comprehension might provide a sound approach to initial reading instruction.

Programs and Grouping Practices

Many elementary schools are now undergoing broad changes in their organization. It is now relatively easy to find cross-grade grouping for instruction at the primary and intermediate grade levels. In some schools it has been demonstrated that cross-grade grouping for reading instruction could involve all the elementary grades. To date, however, there are relatively few research studies related to the effectiveness of either cross-grade or other new grouping practices. It might well be that it is impossible to control all the variables that cross-grade grouping contains making research difficult if not meaningless.

In one comparison of two approaches in upgrading reading instruction Anastasiow[43] found no significant difference in reading achievement when fourth, fifth and sixth grade pupils organized across grades for reading instruction were compared with pupils of similar socio-economic status taught in self-contained class. The author concluded that instructional procedures, rather than organization, account for reading achievement.

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[40] Robert E. Chasnoff, "Two Alphabets: A Follow Up," *Elementary School Journal,* 68 (February, 1968) 251-257.

[41] Nicholas P. Crisuolo, "How Effective Are Basal Readers With Culturally Disadvantaged Children?" *Elementary English,* 45 (March, 1968) 364-365.

[42] William G. Doggs, "A Comparison of Words in Color and Traditional Basal Reading," *Research in the Teaching of English* 2 (2), (Fall, 1968) 152-160.

[43] Nicholas J. Anastasiow, "A Comparison of Two Approaches in Upgrading Reading Instruction," *Elementary English,* 45 (April, 1968) 495-499.

Callaway and Jarvis[44] conducted a survey to determine the nature of organizational patterns in the teaching of reading in 105 elementary schools in Georgia. They found that seventy-five per cent of the primary grades and forty-two per cent of the intermediate grades were organized on a self-contained basis. Twenty per cent of the intermediate grades were departmentalized and seventeen per cent used cross-grading. Only nine per cent of the schools used cross-grading in the primary classes. Achievement grouping was found to be the most frequently used method of forming intraclass groups, while only seventeen per cent used within-class interest grouping. In conclusion the authors found that the typical elementary school surveyed followed the basic grades (1-6) organization and the self-contained class as the instructional unit. Most schools grouped children on the basis of achievement rather than interests or specific social needs.

In the past twenty years many writers have discussed individualized reading instruction. A few generally unsatisfactory research studies have been conducted in an attempt to explore the value of individualized instruction. While it seems obvious that the proponents of the individualized teaching of reading have made an impact on elementary school teachers the survey of Rothrock[45] was conducted to determine why literature on individualized reading has declined during the 1960's. Rothrock received 150 replies from 1200 questionnaires sent to teachers in five midwestern states. The replies suggested that the idea of individualized reading had made an impression on the teachers surveyed but had probably been absorbed as part of a total reading program as a technique rather than a philosophical approach to reading instruction.

Certainly the effort to individualize reading instruction was a healthy reaction to whole or part group instruction which dominated elementary schools for many years. The present trend towards individualized programmed instruction, very different in approach but similar in developing a child-paced reading program without the opportunity, however, for self selection, will probably replace individualized reading as it was presented by Veatch, Hunt, Lazar, Barbe and others.

A project related to special programs for exceptional children was reported by Warner[46]. In this study a special phonetic program was designed for emotionally disturbed, mentally retarded or neurologically impaired individuals. Significant improvement in ability to handle phonetic elements and oral directions as gauged by the ratings of observers, was found for the emotionally disturbed and mentally retarded pupils. The study was of a preliminary nature as the N was very small, no standardized measures were used and there was no evidence of control of teacher activity in using the materials.

In a study of Negro and Caucasian pupils in the outer, mid and inner city, an effort was made by Morrison[47] to measure teacher-pupil behaviors occurring in three types of classroom reading situations: (1) the use of the same reading or subject area text by all pupils; (2) the use of multi-level texts in reading groups; and (3) the use of supplementary and/or individualized read-

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[44] A. Byron Callaway and Oscar T. Jarvis, "Teaching Reading in the Elementary School," *Education*, 89 (November-December) 122-116.

[45] Dayton G. Rothrock, "Teachers Surveyed: A Decade of Individualized Reading," *Elementary English*, 45 (October, 1968) 754-757.

[46] Delores Warner, "A Phonetic Reading Program for Exceptional Pupils," The Journal of the Reading Specialist 8 (October, 1968) 32-43.

[47] Virginia B. Morrison, "Teacher-pupil-Interaction in Three Types of Elementary Classroom Reading Situations, *The Reading Teacher*, Vol. 22 No. 3 (Dec. 1968) pp. 271-275.

ing materials in classrooms of elementary schools. By analyzing pupil-teacher interactions as recorded by video-taped observations, it was found that the use of multilevel and supplementary materials showed the greatest number of positive classroom interactions. The use of one text resulted in a low number of interactions. The study seems to bear out the feelings of many teachers concerning the increase in the positive and dynamic quality of instruction as children are given material which might best suit their individual needs and abilities.

Vocabulary and Word Analysis

As in 1967, a limited number of studies of vocabulary and word analysis appeared in 1968.

Theron, Stoyle and Kirk[48] investigated the sex factor in vocabulary differences in deprived center city children. They also attempted to determine if significant vocabulary changes occurred during a year when all the pupils attended a Head Start pre-school program. The testing of vocabulary on the Picture Vocabulary items of the *Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale* indicated that more males than females scored at or above the age norms. There was a significant difference in favor of boys in the extent of vocabulary. While a significant change in vocabulary development was found for the entire group, no significant difference was found between sexes in reference to change. This study is interesting because it suggests that contrary to the usual findings, boys had larger tested vocabularies than girls and improved as much as girls with the Head Start program. A similar study using a well defined comparative control population would aid proponents of Head Start in supporting claims of the value of their programs.

Arnold[49] compared four methods of teaching delinquent disabled readers word recognition skills using the *Mills Learning Methods Test* as the instructional model. Arnold taught twelve boys ten words by four different teaching methods: visual, auditory, kinaesthetic or continuation. The period of teaching was followed by a test of immediate recall and a test of delayed recall. While the kinaesthetic method appeared least effective in both immediate and delayed recall, no one teaching method proved decisively superior. It was suggested that these disabled children could learn word recognition using any of the suggested techniques as long as the instruction was "appropriate."

Hall[50], replicated a prior study which sought to determine whether five and six year olds produced more false responses to words than eight and nine year olds and to explore the effect of overt pronunciation on "implicit associative response" (IAR)—produced false recognition. Implicit associative response is a condition wherein the word studied recalls another word which is associated with it in meaning, as for example, "scissors" and "cut." It was found that as in the prior study younger students made more IAR—produced false recognitions than older students and that the recognition of words was facilitated for kindergartners by overt pronouncing. The study suggested that the greater facility of older pupils to recognize words accurately may be due to their ability to discriminate better between words and that perhaps older children re-

[48] Theron Alexander, Judith Stoyle and Charles Kirk, "The Language of Children in the Inner City," *Journal of Psychology*, 68 (March, 1968) 215-221.

[49] Richard D. Arnold, "Four Methods of Teaching Word Recognition to Disabled Readers," *Elementary School Journal*, 68 (February, 1968) 269-274.

[50] James W. Hall, "Word Recognition by Children of Two Age Levels," *Journal of Educational Psychology* 59 (December, 1968) 420-424.

hearse presented words more than younger children. The study also raises the question as to whether or not there might be a best time to teach word recognitions in terms of eliciting the greatest number of correct responses and the fewest number of false recognition due to IAR.

Burmeister[51], reversing the procedure used by Hanna, et al., studied the grapheme to phoneme relationship in 17,310 selected from Part I of the *Thorndike-Lorge Teachers Word Book* plus 2,026 words selected from the Merriam-Webster New College Dictionary, which were considered to be relevant to a study of a 'common core' vocabulary. By reversing the Hanna procedure, the investigator was able to classify the sounds of all "vowel-vowel" combinations forming a single phoneme in the words examined. The results indicated that vowel-pairs fall into four categories. The first vowel may be dominant as in ai, ay, ea, ee, aa and ow. The two vowels may cooperate (blend) as is usually true with the combinations au, aw, oi, and oo. A new sound may be created: ei = a, ou = e, ey = i, ew = u. Vowel-pairs may separate. This study adds significantly to what has already been contributed to vowel generalizations used in teaching phonic analysis.

A related study was conducted by Fuld[52] who investigated the frequency with which single vowels that immediately preceded pairs of consonants actually have short sounds. The 613 words used in this analysis were selected from five widely used basal reading series, the Dolch and the Fry word lists. Fuld found that the number of words that have a short vowel before two consonants is greater than we would expect by chance and that the short vowel before pairs of consonants appears more consistently in longer words than in short, single syllable words.

Reading Achievement and Some Correlates

Studies of reading achievement range far afield in seeking answers to the problem of teaching reading successfully or finding means through which pupils learn to read. The nine studies reported represent dozens of others which, to a certain degree, relate to reading instruction and learning in the elementary school.

In a revival of interest in a widely studied topic Cohen and Glass[53] attempted to determine the relationship existing between crossed or mixed dominance and reading ability. They asked the following questions: Is there a higher incidence of mixed hand or eye dominance among poor readers than among good readers? Are crossed dominant eye-hand patterns related to reading disability? Is there a particular pattern which is most often manifest in retarded readers? Thirty good and thirty poor readers in first grade and thirty good and thirty poor readers from fourth grade were examined with dominance tests measuring knowledge of left and right hands, hand dominance, visual-motor consistency and knowledge of left and right. It was found that good readers were more likely to be "normal" and poor readers "hesitant" or "confused" in their knowledge of left and right. Good readers were more likely to have mixed-hand dominance. There were significantly more first grade children who were hesitant or confused in their knowledge of left and right than fourth grade children. Right handed children were more likely to have a knowledge of left and

[51] Lou E. Burmeister, "Vowel Fairs," *The Reading Teacher,* Vol. 21, No. 5 (February, 1968) 445-452.
[52] Paula Fuld, "Vowel Sounds in Vocabulary Words," *The Reading Teacher,* Vol. 21, No. 5 (February, 1968) 442-444.
[53] Alice Cohen and Gerald G. Glass, "Lateral Dominance and Reading Ability," *The Reading Teacher,* Vol. 21, No. 4 (January, 1968) 343-348.

right than left handed or mixed handed children.

Buerger[54] compared the long term post remedial educational progress and attitudes of seventy-two pupils who in grades three through seven had received fifty or more hours of remedial reading instruction with the status of seventy-two pupils who also needed remedial instruction but did not receive it. The two groups were equated on the basis of mental ability, reading performance and letter grades. After a time lapse of up to five years from the remedial instruction, it was found that the addition of the remedial instruction did not appear to have a long-term significant effect on vocabulary, or reading comprehension skills or grades achieved in English and Social Studies. Added surveys of the long term effect of remedial education would have to be conducted before it could be concluded that remedial education did not contribute more to the overall long term ability to read and learn than no remedial education.

A study of the effect of under-and-over achievement on the personality concomitants of socio-economically and racial-ethnically different fourth grade children was reported by Adams and Phillips.[55] The researchers administered a wide variety of informal tests and used sociometric measures as well as teacher rating scales to assess anxiety, attitudes and interests, motivation, neuroticism, feelings of inferiority, etc. Under-achievers, as compared to over-achievers were less motivated academically and were more anxious. Over-achievers presented less of a behavioral problem to teachers, were better adjusted psychologically and were better accepted by their peers.

Children in Head Start programs have served as the subjects for several experiments in the development of pre-reading and reading skills. Goolsby[56] reports on a project which attempted to improve the listening achievement of sixty pupils randomly chosen from a Head Start program developed in Leon County, Florida. Three experimental groups received one of three techniques designed to improve their listening ability. Although results were somewhat hard to interpret it was indicated that techniques such as Goolsby used were useful in aiding Head Start children improve their ability to listen.

Reddin[57] also experimented with whether or not instruction in specific listening techniques would affect the development of reading skills and critical thinking. The subjects of the experiment were 381 intermediate grade children divided into experimental and control groups. The pupils were pre- and post-tested with tests of reading and critical thinking. The experimental group was given eighteen lessons in listening. The results indicated that instruction in listening skills was not effective in improving reading for main ideas and details with fourth grade pupils but was effective in developing reading for details with sixth grade pupils. The trend of no effect in improving reading for details from no effect in fourth grade, to a small effect in fifth, to a significant effect in sixth grade, suggests a need to replicate the study in order to observe to what the increased effect can be attributed. It would also be

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[54] Theodore A. Buerger, "A Follow-up of Remedial Reading Instruction, *The Reading Teacher*, Vol. 21, No. 4 (January, 1968) 329-334.

[55] Russell L. Adams and Beeman N. Phillips, "Factors Associated with Under- and Over-Achievement Among Socio-Economically and Racial-Ethnically Different Elementary School Children," *Psychology in the School*, Vol. V, No. 2 (April, 1968; 170-174.

[56] Thomas M. Goolsby, Jr., "Listening Achievement in Head Start," *The Reading Teacher*, Vol. 21, No. 7 (April, 1968) 659-662.

[57] Estoy Reddin, "Listening Instruction, Reading, and Critical Reading," *The Reading Teacher*, Vol. 21, No. 7 (April, 1968) 654-658.

interesting to determine whether 3rd and 7th grade pupils fitted into the trend of effect.

A much needed area of study, the evaluation of the effectiveness of local teaching aides in center city school reading programs, has been reported by Tannenbaum.[58] His report concerns the use of neighborhood recruited aides in helping first grade children in reading. An analysis of the difference in reading achievement of children of similar abilities, who were and who were not tutored, was made at the end of the first grade year. It was apparent that the tutored children were significantly more able in word meaning and other subtests of the *Metropolitan Reading Test* and in Visual Perception as measured by the *Frostig Tests.* In addition the technique of involving parents in helping their children was reported and this in itself is a valuable addition to the information on the use and value of teaching aides.

The effect of reading aloud to socially and culturally disadvantaged second grade children on their reading achievement was explored by Cohen.[59] The subjects were 580 second grade pupils divided into experimental and control classes. Teachers in the experimental classes read a story each day to their pupils from fifty selected books. Control class teachers proceeded as they usually did, reading stories occasionally but not daily. The increase of the experimental group in vocabulary, word knowledge and reading comprehension was significantly greater than that of the control group. The author concludes that reading to disadvantaged pupils is an important aid to the improvement of their skill in reading.

Blank[60] tried to determine whether certain special processes might be responsible for the poorer performance of retarded readers on the *Wepman Auditory Discrimination Test.* In three separate studies involving 20 or more retarded and 20 or more normal readers Blank varied the presentation of the tests of auditory discrimination. The findings suggest that the poor performance of retarded readers could result from the complex demands of what is seemingly a task involving simple perceptual discriminations. This study, conducted in English and Hebrew with Israeli children deserves replication because it might lend more insight into the relationship of tested auditory discrimination and retarded reading. It might well be that the complexity of the directions in performing the task might be more significant in task performance than the difficulty of the task itself.

Interests and Literature

There is a continued interest in attempting to determine the reading preferences of young children. The study of Ford and Koplyay[61] used a non-verbal test of children's preferences with kindergarten, first, second and third grade pupils, half from a suburban upper-middle class suburban school and the other half from an urban school with predominantly Negro children.

The preferences were made from pictures drawn from six categories—children in general, children in the inner city, Negro heritage, history and science, animals and fantasy. The children were asked to circle the pictures which represented stories they

[58] Abraham J. Tannenbaum, "An Evaluation of STAR: A Non-Professional Tutoring Program," *The Record,* Teachers College, Columbia University, Vol. 69, No. 5, 1968, 433-448.

[59] Dorothy H. Cohen, "The Effect of Literature on Vocabulary and Reading Achievement," *Elementary English,* 45 (February, 1968) 209-215, 217.

[60] Marion Blank, "Cognitive Processes in Auditory Discrimination in Normal and Retarded Readers," *Child Development,* 39 (December, 1968) 1091-1101.

[61] Robin C. Ford and Janos Koplyay, "Children's Story Preferences," *The Reading Teacher,* Vol. 22, No. 3 (December, 1968) 233-237.

would like to read and to cross out the picture of a story they would not like to read. Written sentences accompanied the pictures and could be read to expand interest. The children ranked stories of Negro heritage, history and science as those in which they were most interested; animals and fantasy as least interesting. Analysis further revealed that preferences were related to grade level and sex of the pupils.

An interesting study of Monson[62] tried to determine what fifth grade pupils found humorous in literature. An instrument was constructed to measure reactions to humorous situations excerpted from *Henry Huggins, Owls in the Family, Charlotte's Web, Pippi Longstocking,* and *The Cricket in Times Square.* Five kinds of humor were measured: 1) humor of character, 2) humor of surprise, 3) humor of the impossible, 4) humor of words, 5) and humor of situation. Children were asked to specify passages they thought humorous. The results indicated that girls responded more freely in writing than boys. Responses to *Henry Huggins* showed least sex differences. Boys and children from the low socio-economic group responded best when they answered the true-false or multiple choice items on the instrument rather than on the essay portion. It is suggested that for purposes of gathering information on children's preferences it would probably be more reliable to gain oral reaction rather than written ones because of the seeming reluctance or inability of boys and children from lower socio-economic areas to write responses.

A number of studies have been made to determine the philosophical values inherent in basal reading material. The study of Ozmon[63] attempted to identify the values found in the readers widely used by American pupils. The educational philosophy of progressivism was found to be dominant in the readers. The values represented an optimistic, open and creative attitude toward the world in general.

Ratcliff and Baker[64] studied the effect on sixth grade pupils of using a variety of experimental material with the text used to verify the information as compared to studying a social studies text as the main source of information. The group using the experimental materials learned significantly more information and also seemed to have a higher degree of interest and a more positive attitude towards study than the control group.

Special Problems and Reading

This section contains a variety of studies on widely different topics, but related to special problems of interest to the reading specialist.

Gardner and Birnbrauer[65] compared the two forms of the *Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test.* They found Form A was easier for older students and significantly more difficult for younger students.

A study to determine the effect of massive rewards on reading achievement in potential urban dropouts was conducted with 110 children, ages ten through thirteen by Clark and Walberg[66]. Children in the experimental group had a larger number of

[62] Dianne Monson, "Children's Test Responses to Seven Humorous Stories," *Elementary School Journal,* 68 (April, 1968) 334-339.

[63] Howard A. Ozmon, Jr., "Value Implications in Children's Reading Material," *The Reading Teacher,* Vol. 22, No. 3 (December, 1968) 246-250.

[64] Robert H. Ratcliff and Eugene Baker, "The Impact of Sources Upon Student Learning in 6th Grade Social Studies," *Psychology in the School,* Vol. V, No. 1 (January 1968) 84-86.

[65] Ann M. Gardner and J. S. Birnbrauer, "A Note on Possible Form Differences in the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test," *American Journal of Mental Deficiency,* Vol. 73, No. 1 (July, 1968) pp 86-89.

[66] Carl A. Clark and Herbert J. Walberg, "The Influence of Massive Rewards on Reading Achievement in Potential Urban Dropouts," *American Educational Research Journal,* 5 (May, 1968) 305-310.

verbal rewards for each after school reading lesson than those in the control group. Their scores after pre and post reading testing indicated that the experimental group showed significantly higher scores than the control group. The authors suggest that this study. . . . "confirms the hypothesis from reinforcement theories of learning that verbal rewards have efficacy in the control of operant behavior in human subjects." They conclude that . . . . "teacher's increased use of verbal praise has a positive effect on the scholastic learning of children who are potential dropouts from inner-city schools."

A study by Hardy[67] reported the academic, vocational and social adjustment of a group of young adults who had been disabled in reading and who had received diagnosis and remedial treatment during their elementary school years. An investigation of records indicated that gains made by pupils were significant as compared with students in equivalent grades only during the period of remedial treatment. In general the subjects appeared less deviant in their behavior and better able to cope with life than at the time of their referral to the clinic. It was suggested that remedial teachers should attempt to help handicapped readers to understand, accept and cope with their problems.

Brittain and Brittain[68] explored the relationship between reading ability at two levels, and the processes of cognition and convergent thinking. The study was conducted with 4th and 6th grade pupils all above average in intelligence. Reading cognition and convergent thinking were assessed at each grade level. Results indicated that girls showed no change in relationship of tested reading and cognition from fourth to sixth grade. The correlations of boys declined from .57 to .17. Correlation of reading and convergent thinking is low for girls but among boys the correlation increases significantly at the .05 level. The study suggested that the relationship of reading to cognition and convergent thinking changes reciprocally from grades four to six among boys, but not among girls.

Reading specialists and writers search constantly for new approaches to the problem of measuring readability. Barker and Stokes[69] in attempting to eliminate the problem of counting words in a passage not on the Dale list have found that the number of words in an article of six or more letters correlated with the number of words not on the Dale list to the extent of .78. They present a new regression equation using the simpler variable.

Mingione[70] sought to determine the comparative achievement needs of Negro, White and Puerto Rican 5th and 7th grade children in low socio-economic areas of a large New England city. The test used showed that there were no significant differences found among the ethnic groups studied. There is need for much more detailed information related to this study and certainly more definitive study of the comparative achievement needs of the children of various ethnic groups.

The effects of inservice education on the teaching of reading and language arts of

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[67] Madeline I. Hardy, "Disabled Readers: What Happens to Them After Elementary School? *Canadian Education and Research Digest,* 8 (December, 1968) 338-346.

[68] Mary M. Brittain and Clay V. Brittain, "A Study of Two Levels of Reading, Cognition, and Convergent Thinking," *Education,* 88 (April-May, 1968) 321-325.

[69] D. G. Barker and W. W. Stokes, "A Simplification of the Revised Lorge Readability Formula," *Journal of Educational Research,* 61 (May-June, 1968) 398-400.

[70] Ann Dissinger Mingione, "Need for Achievement in Negro, White and Puerto Rican Children," *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology,* 32 (February, 1968) 94-95.

fourth grade and junior high school teachers was reported by Sawyer and Taylor.[71] Through a comparison of before and after ratings by supervisors it was estimated that elementary teachers in the program increased their knowledge of instructional materials, encouraged free reading for their pupils, and shared materials with other teachers. Junior High teachers increased their knowledge of materials, their understanding of the reading process, their ability to diagnose reading problems, and their attention to individual differences. Continued studies of the changes made in teacher knowledge, practices and general teaching techniques as a result of inservice education is badly needed. This study could well be replicated by instructors in inservice courses given both on and off college campuses.

A unique study conducted by Fisher[72] attempted to assess the changes in attitude of fifth grade children towards American Indians as a result of reading and discussion of certain materials. Eighteen classrooms of fifth grade pupils were randomly assigned as either control reading or reading and discussion groups. A pre- and post-test attitude information test revealed that both the reading and reading and discussion groups changed significantly more than the control group in their attitudes towards American Indians. Black subjects in the reading groups showed significantly greater attitude changes than did Caucasians. The study lends support to the belief that reading and discussion on topics can aid individuals change attitudes. There is also the suggestion in this study that on some topics —at least on this one, there is an ethnic concomitant to change.

Williams[73] attempted to determine the effect of rewriting science text materials on the reading comprehension and rate of sixth grade pupils. The text used for sixth grade science (readability 6.5 grade) was rewritten on a third grade level by simplifying non-technical vocabulary, retaining but amplifying technical vocabulary and rephrasing and shortening sentences. Fifteen sixth grade classrooms, 417 S's, were stratified into three reading ability levels and randomly assigned to read either the third grade or sixth grade level material. An author-devised comprehension test was administered after the reading. Results indicated that as expected poorer readers made better scores on rewritten material. Average or above average readers made the same scores on both tests. Below average readers read both passages at the same rate.

The value themes in five basal reading series (grades 1-3) were analyzed by graduate students and the results reported by Johnson and Geoffroy.[74] Results indicated that there are a number of identifiable types of behavioral modes suggested by values reflected in basal readers. The child exposed to reading primary grade readers could glean a set of philosophic values from his reading. Results also suggested that a more pluralistic value structure needs to be presented in the primary grade readers reviewed and that publishers need to be critical of values which present but one point of view.

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[71] Rita Sawyer and Lucille B. Taylor, "Evaluating Teacher Effectiveness in Reading Instruction," *The Journal of Reading*, 11 (March, 1968) 415-418+.

[72] Frank L. Fisher, "Influences of Reading and Discussion on the Attitudes of Fifth Graders Toward American Indians," *The Journal of Educational Research*, 62 (November, 1968) 330-334.

[73] David L. Williams, "Rewritten Science Material and Reading Comprehension," *The Journal of Educational Research*, 61 (January, 1968) 204-206.

[74] Joseph C. Johnson, II and Kevin E. Geoffroy, "Value Reflected Behavioral Modes: A Theoretical Construct," *The Journal of the Reading Specialist* 7 (March, 1968).

An interesting study reported by Davis and Personke[75] explored the effects of administering the *Metropolitan Readiness Test* in English and Spanish to Spanish-speaking school entrants. Results of mean differences of total scores between the two forms of the test yielded non-significant differences. Significant differences were found however, in subtest I (Word Meaning) scores which were significantly higher when the test was administered in Spanish. On subtests 4 (Alphabet) and 5 (Numbers) significant differencs favored the English test. The authors suggested that language itself may not be the critical parameter of culture-fairness in testing Spanish speaking children. Prior learning elicited from experiences might be the more important determinant of low performance of these children than the language in which the test was administered, particularly at the readiness level where reading the language of the school was not necessary.

Robertson[76] investigated the comprehension of connectives, ie: however, thus, which, etc. by fourth, fifth and sixth grade pupils. Results showed that there was an increase in pupil understanding of connectives from the lower to higher grade. Within each grade however, there were at least five achievement groups identified, whose group means on the *Connective Reading Test* constructed by the author, differed significantly one from the other. Other findings indicated that comprehension problems appeared to focus on test items containing sentence linkers. Comprehension of six of seventeen connectives—*however, thus, which, although* and *yet* were below the comprehension level of the total pupil group on all test items. A significant relationship was found between the understanding a child has of connectives and his sex, M. A. and abilities in listening, reading and written language. Place of residence in urban, small town, or rural areas exerted a significant effect upon pupil test scores interacting significantly with both grade and sex factors. The author suggests that pupils' understanding of connectives is too limited for the amount of usage found in textbooks. They particularly need help in sentence linkers. Systematic training in connectives should take into account different rates of learning and levels of maturity of understanding by age and sex.

Merritt[77] tested the hypothesis that sixth grade children can comprehend specially-prepared materials dealing with such broad social issues as discrimination, antivivisection, and labor rights. In addition to studying the comprehension of these and other issues of 481 sixth grade pupils, large groups were tested for comparative purposes. Students were tested on their comprehension of interest in the concepts, opinions, reasons, motives, etc. of fictionalized articles on five social issues. Comprehension increased sharply from grades five to six, while increases were shown at grades seven and nine over the sixth grade. The ability of sixth grade pupils to recall, generalize and make inferences seemed to qualify them to profit from a study of social conflicts. Because the readability level of the articles was not mentioned it might be that the significant increase in comprehension might well be due to the difficulty of material. It was noted that pupils were most interested in those issues on which they scored highest in comprehension.

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[75] O. L. Davis, Jr. and Carl R. Personke, Jr., "Effects of Administering the *Metropolitan Readiness Test* in English and Spanish to Spanish-Speaking School Entrants," *Journal of Educational Measurement*, Vol. 5, No. 3 (Fall, 1968) 189-195.

[76] Jean E. Robertson, "Pupil Understanding of Connectives in Reading," *Reading Research Quarterly* 3 (Spring, 1968) 387-417.

[77] James Merritt, "A Study of Sixth Graders' Comprehension of Specially-Prepared Materials on Broad Social Conflicts," *The Journal of Educational Research*, 61 (March, 1968).

The reviewers found a number of additional articles of interest to the reading specialist in particular, and cite only bibliographical references of those which were thought to be of most interest:

S. J. Samuels, "Effect of Word Associations in Reading Speed, Recall, and Guessing Behavior on Tests," *Journal of Educational Psychology,"* 59 (February, 1968) 12-15.

John J. Bormuth, "Cloze Test Readability: Criterion Reference Scores," *Journal of Educational Measurement* 5 (Fall, 1968) 189-196.

Stanley Krippner, "Etiological Factors in Reading Disability of the Academically Talented in Comparison to Pupils of Average and Slow-Learning Ability," *The Journal of Educational Research* 61 (February, 1968) 275-279.

Frederick B. Davis, "Research in Comprehension in Reading," *Reading Research Quarterly,* 3 (Summer, 1968)

Willavene Wolf, Martha L. Kind, and Charlotte Huck, "Teaching Critical Reading to Elementary School Children," *Reading Research Quarterly,* 3 (Summer, 1968) 435-498.

Camille Houston and Wayne Otto, "Poor Readers' Functioning on the WISC, Slossen Intelligence Test and Quick Test," *The Journal of Educational Research,* 62 (December, 1968) 157-164.

John F. Cawley, Henry A. Goodstein, and Will H. Burrow, *Reading and Psychomotor Disability Among Mentally Retarded and Average Children,* Storrs: University of Connecticut, 1968.

Summary of Investigations Relating to the English Language Arts in Secondary Education: 1968

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THE research reported in the present article was located through the bibliography of research (Blount, 1968 a, b) printed in the Spring and Fall numbers of Volume 2 of *Research in the Teaching of English* (*RTE*). The *RTE* bibliography is compiled from a basic master list of approximately one hundred journals high in their yield of research and from various book and nonprocessed sources.

Some selectivity was exercised in the selection of articles for inclusion in this summary. The greatest emphasis was placed upon empirical investigations with a demonstrated focus upon the teaching of English and upon investigations of more than usual significance.

General

Research activity during the past year as reflected in the volume of published investigations seems greatest in an area of a rather general nature. Under this "general" category are included the topics, bibliographies, and summaries of research, and general English pedagogy.

Bibliographies and Summaries of Research

Blount (1968 c) summarized selected investigations relating to the English language arts in secondary education and prepared bibliographies of research in the teaching of English (1968 a, b). Crisp (1968) presented summaries and conclusions for seven completed special research studies of the Illinois State-Wide Curriculum Study Center in the Preparation of Secondary School English Teachers. Reporting for NCTE/ERIC, Denby authored reports on oral communication skills (1968 a), spelling (1968 b), composition evaluation (1968 c), and linguistic instruction (1968 d). Summaries of investigations relating to reading were made by Harris, Otto, and Barrett (1968) and by Robinson, Weintraub, and Smith (1968). Piché (1967) reported on revision and reform in secondary school English curriculum, 1870-1900. Pooley (1968) summarized recent selected studies in curriculum research and development in English. Sheldon and Lashinger (1968 a, b) reported research

studies relating to language arts in elementary education.

General English Pedagogy

Blackwell (1967) studied student perception of activities which provide for active participation in the English classroom. The students (N=72) were tenth-graders from three schools in a city in Alabama. Data were from observations taped in eighteen English classrooms and from interviews with a sample of four students from each classroom. Whether literature or language was being taught, teachers used a question-and-answer method. When questioned by the teacher, the students responded most of the time, but they offered few voluntary contributions. Students ranked original work and classroom discussion first in providing for active participation; they ranked reading aloud and dramatization second; they ranked oral reports third.

Davis (1967) examined the effects of student-to-student tutoring at the Island Trees Junior High School, Levittown, New York. The population consisted of 120 ninth-grade boys and girls; the treatment lasted thirty weeks; the experimental design included a control group. There were thirty experimental pairs of students: each team consisted of one high-achieving student who was the tutor and of one low-achieving student who was tutored. The dependent variables were sub-test scores on language, spelling, and paragraph meaning from the *Stanford Achievement Test* and final grades in English. The tutors made significant gains in paragraph meaning, spelling, and in grades in English. The experimental low-achieving students who were tutored made no significant gains in any of the dependent variables. The investigator cautioned that the measures used were not free of the effects of various school and cocurricular activities and listed helpful suggestions for other teachers who might study such a tutoring project.

DeVries (1967) sought to determine how English teachers from thirteen Indiana school systems accepted and employed selected practices in the teaching of English. Data were from a questionnaire made up of thirty classroom practices selected as representative of various research and professional writings in the teaching of English. One hundred sixty-nine teachers from the thirteen school systems returned the questionnaire. Many of the teachers in the study seemed unacquainted with research in the language arts, with recent developments in linguistics, or with current materials in learning and human abilities. DeVries was able to draw the conclusion that research in the teaching of English seemed to have little effect on classroom practices in the school systems studied.

Ducharme (1968) examined questions dealing with the process of the close reading of literature in secondary school English, as the process might affect teaching methods, teaching materials, and teacher education programs. Examining protocols of some two hundred liberal arts graduates enrolled in teacher-education programs on Elinor Wylie's poem "The Eagle and the Mole," he found little skill in close reading. For example, less than 20 per cent of the students indicated the inherent irony of the poem. Looking at eleven methods texts on the teaching of English, Ducharme found little or no material in close reading, only one of the textbooks including an example of the process of close reading. He recommended that prospective English teachers be provided careful and systematic training in the close reading of literature.

Hirshfield (1967) studied quantitatively secondary school English program objectives using a modified Bloom *Taxonomy* as the measuring instrument. The Bloom categories used for classification of day-to-day classroom experiences and the testing program were: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis,

synthesis, and evaluation. Thirty-one teachers in five schools were observed; and 1,100 test questions were analyzed. The categories, analysis, comprehension, and knowledge, consistently appeared, though not in the order presented in the *Taxonomy*. Teachers devoted more classroom time to knowledge than to comprehension. Analysis of objective-type questions revealed heavy concentration on knowledge, light concentration on comprehension. Analysis of essay questions revealed the teachers' use of each of the categories, stressing comprehension most and synthesis least.

Hoetker (1968) reported on teacher questioning behavior in nine junior high school English classes. There were classes at three grade levels; there were three ability groupings at each level. The teachers were experienced and confident. The mean teacher questioning rate per minute of substantive (*i. e.*, subject matter related) talk was 5.17 questions per minute or one teacher question every 11.8 seconds. Questioning rates appeared unrelated to grade level or to ability level. Hoetker left speculations upon the probable effects of such practices upon student attitudes toward English to the reader's imagination but cited critics' speculations that such method encourages the rote learning of discrete facts; creates a tense, threatening classroom atmosphere; encourages submissiveness and dependence; penalizes individuality; and provides no opportunity for real dialogue or for the development of the powers of expression.

Jackson (1967) sought to study the relationship between the observed classroom behavior of high school English teachers and the growth of pupils in knowledge of grammar skills. Data using (1) the Ryans scale for observer ratings of teachers and (2) pupil growth as measured by pretests and posttests described an inconsistent relationship. The accuracy of assessing the effectiveness of the teacher seemed to depend upon the observer. Jackson concluded that observation of teachers and rating of behavioral traits were unreliable methods of judging teacher effectiveness as measured by pupil growth.

Among the objectives of a study by Lester (1966) was a comparison of the effects of team teaching and of departmentalized teaching on the scholastic achievement of eighth-grade English students. The students were in two different junior high schools; however, pretest data indicated that the groups did not differ significantly. Data included scores in reading and language. The findings suggested that team teaching was significantly more effective than departmental organization in bringing about achievement in English.

Squire and Applebee (1968) gave a description of practices in teaching English in forty-two pacesetting secondary schools in England, Scotland, and Wales. Practices in the United Kingdom were compared and contrasted with the earlier Squire and Applebee study of outstanding English programs in America.[1] Data were from interviews, observations, questionnaires, and the reports of ten observers. English was viewed by teachers in the British schools as a process of individual growth, interaction, and pupil response; teachers were less concerned with structure of knowledge, concept learning, or the literary tradition than teachers in America. All aspects of the teaching of English seemed to deny any fixed body of content. Only in the preparation for O and A level examinations in the upper forms was the overt discipline of English a real consideration. Dramatic activity, improvisation, imaginative writing, and informal classroom discussion were stressed in U. K. schools. Few U. K. schools presented formal pro-

[1]For a recent non-technical report of the American study, see James R. Squire and Roger K. Applebee, *High School English Instruction Today* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1968).

grams in rhetoric or in the English language (including grammatical analysis), viewing fluency and frequency of oral and written expression as more important to student growth. The U. K. literature curriculum emphasized contemporary writers and gave poetry and drama more attention than in American schools. Students in British schools responded more actively and excitedly to literature than the students observed in America. Education for low-achieving students seemed generally more successful than similar programs in America. Cautioning that a survey of teaching practices in all U. K. schools might reveal the effect of more conservative traditions, the investigators concluded that national innovation in the teaching of English is well underway in the United Kingdom and that there is much that English teachers in America can learn from the British.

Composition

Ellis (1967) examined the use in writing of currently taught methods of paragraph development. The investigator took samples of one hundred paragraphs from letters to the editor of the *Richmond Times-Dispatch*, one hundred paragraphs from the *Saturday Review*, and one hundred paragraphs from the *English Journal*. The paragraphs from these three sources were compared with methods of paragraph development presented in composition textbooks published since 1960. Analysis of the three hundred paragraphs and comparison with textbooks showed (1) that more than a third of the paragraphs in the three sources were not developed by textbook methods; (2) that one of the textbook methods of paragraph development was not used in any of the three sources; and (3) that eight of the textbook methods of paragraph development were used as follows: cause-effect (1 per cent), chronology (6 per cent), contrast (1 per cent), definition (1 per cent), details (22 per cent), examples (24 per cent), reasons (8 per cent), and repetition (1 per cent).

Hopkins (1967) compared a deductive and an inductive discovery methodology in the development of composition skills. The students were twelfth-graders taught by two teachers. Comparisons were made of scores for Essay Question 2, Grade 11, *End-of-Year Examinations in English for College-Bound Students.* The study results showed that the students using the inductive, discovery methods made significantly greater gains in inductive thought in interpreting literature as reflected in scores assigned by four graders of the CEEB essay. Students using the deductive method were found significantly better in gains in deductive thinking in literary interpretation as measured by the four graders of the essay. The difference between the two groups on the CEEB score did not reach statistical significance.

One of the objectives of an investigation by Maloney (1967) was to identify qualities differentiating performance in expository composition between students designated superior writers and students designated poor writers. The students were ninth-grade students enrolled in Burroughs Junior High School in Detroit. An analytic method of rating was used: evaluators considered organization, maturity of insight, style, and word choice. The greatest differences between superior and poor writers in these four areas occurred in maturity of insight and in organization. By and large, the superior students were female, white, relatively decided on a future career, frequent readers. Superior students either had high mental ability or, if they had average mental ability, were enrolled in challenging homogeneously grouped English classes. Superior students came from homes where parents owned books. They made fewer mechanical errors on their themes, earned higher and more consistent grades in English, and scored high in reading

comprehension, verbal reasoning, and vocabulary tests. They behaved better in the classroom.

Murphy (1967) compared the effectiveness of two approaches, using linguistic or traditional grammars, in learning to write effectively. *Ss* were 188 twelfth-grade male students in a private school in a metropolitan area. Two groups were taught composition through a linguistic approach; two were taught composition through a traditional grammar approach; two groups served as control. Alternate forms of the *Sequential Test of Educational Progress, Essay Tests*, were used as one dependent variable. Analysis indicated that the traditional grammar approach group was more successful than the linguistic approach or the control group. Murphy suggested that the difference was obtained because students in the linguistic course were studying concepts new both to teacher and students and could therefore spend much less time studying concepts from rhetoric and style. It was suggested that the linguistic approach could be effective only as the concepts of the approach could become more familiar to teachers and students and as more classroom time could be spent with rhetoric and style in composition.

Pierson (1967) compared the effects of correction of papers by teachers with the effects of correction by peers. One hundred fifty-three ninth-grade students were taught composition in three experimental and three control classes. In the experimental groups, students were trained to evaluate each other's compositions both individually and in small discussion groups. In the control groups, compositions were evaluated by the teacher. Data used were from *STEP Writing Tests* given before and after treatment (data from the *STEP Essay Tests* were discarded when the judges' ratings were found statistically unreliable). No significant difference was found between comparison groups in mean score gains in the *STEP* test. The investigator concluded that there is no significant difference between peer and teacher correction of compositions. He suggested that schools having a reduced load for English teachers might encourage teachers to use peer correction to release teacher time for composition teaching other than the correction of papers.

Sister Mary Gregory West (1967) conducted an experimental comparison of three methods of correcting themes to improve sentence structure. The three methods were: (1) a teacher correction method in which the teacher pointed out errors and made suggestions for improvements, and then asked the students to revise, (2) a whole-class correction method in which the teacher began the class hour with examples of errors and of strengths for class viewing and discussion and in which students then revised their own papers in the light of class discussion, and (3) a pupil self-correction method in which each student revised his theme independently using a check sheet developed by the investigator as a guide. The subjects were 460 pupils enrolled in ten seventh-grade classes in six parochial schools of the New York Archdiocese. Subjects wrote fourteen expository papers. At the end of fourteen lessons, post-experimental compositions were written by each student. Analysis of variance was used to examine any possible significant differences among the three methods and three levels of mental ability. Students in each method made gains in sentence improvement and reduced the number of sentence errors; none of the three methods was more efficient than the others except in one minor category dealing with the compound sentence. There was no significant difference in performance attributable to mental ability.

Language

Davis (1966) investigated the effects

of instruction in the kernel sentences of transformational-generative g r a m m a r and in parallel concepts from traditional grammar upon four variables in the sentence: (1) average length of clauses, (2) noun phrase element, (3) predicate expansion element, and (4) verb phrase element. The investigator developed the lessons and a sentence analysis instrument. Experimental and control groups (N-84) were equated on the basis of chronological age, IQ, and achievement test scores. Over a period of fourteen weeks, the experimental group studied lessons in transformational grammar; the control, traditional grammar. Both groups wrote pre- and post-treatment. The experimental group (studying transformational grammar) obtained statistically significant increases for predicate expansions (the mean increased from 36.51 to 40.07) and for total number of clauses (from 26.18 to 29.78). Davis concluded that instruction in the kernel sentences of transformational-generative grammar brings about growth in sentence writing; and that, conversely, traditional grammar contributes little to the improvement of syntax. She stated that transformational grammar offers promise in increasing the student's understanding of and writing of mature syntactic structures.

Fredrick, Blount, and Johnson (1968) reported research on three modes of representation in teaching a series of concepts from structural grammar. Seventy-two eighth-grade students were assigned randomly to one of four experimental groups studying programmed materials. Treatment was for five days. One group studied programmed materials on structural grammar which were entirely verbal. A second group studied materials using a symbolic notation. A third group used materials containing symbolic notation in figural sentence-tree diagrams. The fourth group (the control group) studied five programmed lessons in how to read poetry. A posttest was given after the last lesson, and an alternate form of the posttest was administered two weeks later as a measure of long-term retention. All three treatment groups learned and retained more grammar than did the control group. Lessons using symbolic notation and diagrams were each superior to the verbal presentation. Mode of presentation interacted with the intelligence of *Ss*: low ability *Ss* did not benefit from the diagrams, and only high ability *Ss* learned the strictly verbal presentation. The symbolic notation produced significant learning at all levels of ability. The investigators concluded that it seems that the teaching of verbal concepts is facilitated by appropriate diagrams and symbols.

Geiger (1967) compared three methods of teaching vocabulary at the junior high level. The three methods were: (1) use of a programmed textbook in vocabulary development (*Word Clues, Book G*, published by Educational Developmetal Laboratories) using context clues, (2) use of the same textbook augmented by assistance in listening, and (3) use of the textbook augmented by a work analysis supplement. There were three experimental groups and a control group, totalling 328 seventh- and eighth-grade students with an IQ between 75 and 125. Treatment lasted fifteen minutes a day for six weeks. Comparison of pre- and posttests in reading, vocabulary development, and ability to generalize word meanings showed vocabulary development in the seventh-grade using a programmed text emphasizing context clues. Listening assistance was apparently an effective means of reinforcing programmed instructional materials in developing comprehension and vocabulary. The work-analysis supplement did not contribute to the effectiveness of the programmed materials.

Golub (1967) investigated thirty-five linguistic structures which might differ in oral and written composition or which

might receive high or low teacher ratings. Paired samples of oral and written composition were obtained from fifty-five eleventh-grade students. Controls were maintained for the following possible intervening variables: (1) effects of sequence of mode of discourse, (2) discourse stimulus, (3) sex difference, (4) teacher-raters, (5) socioeconomic level of students, (6) motivation, (7) evaluative criteria, (8) students' IQ, and (9) quantity of production. The fifty-five students selected fitted the following description: (1) age, sixteen or seventeen years old; (2) race, white; (3) IQ, 90-120; (4) grade in school, eleventh; (5) family income, $10,000-$15,000 per year; and (6) dialect, standard English, Bay Area California. Using a seven-point scale, three experienced teachers of high school English evaluated the students' oral and written compositions. Trained tabulators were provided a Tabulator's Manual to identify, count, and determine the frequency-index number of each of the thirty-five linguistic items analyzed. Data showed that of the thirty-five linguistic items analyzed, twenty were commonly used, nine were somewhat used, and six were not used at all in the students' oral and written discourse performance. Nine of the linguistic items analzyed showed the following significant differences: (1) There was significantly greater negation ($p<.01$) in low-oral than in low-written, high-oral, or high-written. (2) There were greater linking verb plus adjective structures ($p<.05$) in low-oral than in high-written. (3) There were significantly greater relative clauses ($p<.05$) in high-oral than in high-written. (4) There was significantly more present tense ($p<.01$) in the low-oral than there was in the low-written, the high-oral, or the high-written. There were more transitive verbs followed by direct objects ($p<.05$) in the high-written than in the low-oral. There were significantly fewer prepositional phrases ($p<.05$) in low-oral than in low-written, high-oral, or high-written. There were significantly more ($p<.05$) transitionals and connectors in high-oral than in either high-written or low-written. There was more content-specific vocabulary ($p<.05$) in low-written than in low-oral. There were fewer interpretive statements ($p<.05$) in high-written than in low-written.

Graves (1967) conducted a study to identify language differences among four groups of eighth-grade students: upper-class Negro, upper-class white, lower-class Negro, and lower-class white. There were twenty students in each of the four groups. Students were from six schools in east-central Alabama. Social class was determined by two criteria: the educational level of the student's parents and the occupation of the head of the house. Each student wrote in three forty-five minute sessions on three topics selected by the investigator: "A Letter to a Friend," "The Story of My Life," and "How Our School Could Be Improved." Each student also participated in an eight-minute interview recorded on magnetic tape and then transcribed. There were two major categories for analysis of the oral and written language: (1) analysis of syntactic complexity indexes (words per T-unit, words per clause, clauses per T-unit) and (2) analyses of selected usage items. Eighth-grade students from the upper class produced more words and longer T-units than did their counterparts in the lower class. Upper-class students also produced significantly longer T-units (written and oral) than lower-class students. Among the findings of the usage analysis were that lower-class Negro students often used a singular subject with an uninflected verb; used *be* as a substitute for *is*, *are*, *was*, *were*, or *am* more times than other groups; omitted the linking verb a significantly greater number of times; and had a higher frequency of omitted plural noun inflections. Lower-

class subjects (Negro and white) used double negatives more frequently; used the singular subject with *don't*; had a higher frequency of use of the present tense form for the nonpresent; used *ain't*; often used *me* as one element of a compound subject; and sometimes used *them* as a demonstrative adjective.

Page (1968) examined thirty-two state courses of study, seventy-eight local courses of study, fifty widely-adopted textbooks, thirty-three standardized tests, and copies of the College Entrance Examination Board examinations in English to determine the diversity in the grammar and usage taught in secondary schools today. From his study, he was able to conclude that traditional grammar and usage continue to dominate language instruction in secondary schools. The generalization that spoken language is the language had not gained wide acceptance in the materials examined. The principles that there are levels of usage, that correctness rests upon usage, and that language change is continual and normal had been rather widely recognized in the materials; however, rarely had the descriptive analysis and terminology developed by linguists supplanted traditional grammar presentation. Among the forces instrumental in the retention of traditional grammar, Page listed the conservatism of the schools, the tradition of prescriptive grammar, and the failure of linguists to apply their findings to instructional materials for the schools.

Petty, Herold, and Stoll (1968) reported on the state of knowledge about the teaching of vocabulary. In their 109-page monograph, they present an overview of vocabulary teaching, a review of selected studies, linguistic considerations in vocabulary study, research design for vocabulary studies, and a summary and recommendations.

Stern (1967) conducted a diachronic study of changes in concepts of usage in English language textbooks published from 1923 to 1963 to see whether or not there were changes toward or away from the results of investigations of English usage. He checked fourteen usage concepts appearing in secondary English textbooks against usage concepts found in Hall, Leonard, Marckwardt and Walcott, Fries, Evans and Evans, *OED*, etc. Textbook usage concepts that disagreed with these experts and sources were termed "traditional"; concepts that agreed completely were termed "relativistic"; concepts that agreed partially were considered "concessive" or "transitional." Most of the textbooks were not consistently "traditional," "relativistic," "concessive," or "transitional"; however, the overall picture of usage concepts was toward change in the direction of greater agreement with linguistic findings.

Literature

Appleby (1967) sought to investigate what differences, if any, result when students who have experienced an individual reading approach to the study of literature are compared with students who have not had an individualized approach. One hundred ninety-five twelfth-grade students in two high schools were assigned to three groups through random sampling. Each group contained a proportioned number of students at each of four different ability levels. Treatment was for one semester. The three groups were as follows: Experimental Group A received instruction in individualized reading; students had individual choice of what they read in a teacher-guided program characterized by individual conference rather than by group instruction. Control Group A consisted of students who wanted to be in individualized reading but were enrolled in another English class or were in no English class. Control Group B received instruction in a regular course in English literature. Data collected at the end of one semester were through Test 7, Form Y-3, "Ability To Interpret Literary Materials" of the *Iowa Tests of Edu-*

cational Development and the *Inventory of Satisfactions Found in Reading Fiction.* No significant difference between groups was found in gaining satisfaction from reading fiction in the categories relaxation, escape, and associational values. In the category satisfactions from reading for information, there was a significant difference favoring Experimental Group A. Students in Experimental Group A had fewer dislikes of fiction than students experiencing the other approaches. Students in Experimental Group A found more satisfactions in reading fiction for characterization, style, and technique. They were also more inclined to find satisfactions in the possible contributions of literature to their self-improvement. The investigator concluded that students in a one-semester English elective using an individual reading approach are more inclined to derive certain satisfactions from the study of literature than are students in a required English program.

Hackett, Brown, and Michael (1968) reported an investigation directed toward determining possible differences in the average level of achievement between (1) an experimental group of students exposed to a method involving a minimum threat to self-esteem, student participation in the development of cognitive understandings, and divergent thinking and (2) a control group of students taught by a method involving acquisition of factual information, using routine questions with potential threat-inducing properties, and convergent thinking. *Ss* were seventy-seven twelfth-grade students, forty-three boys and thirty-four girls, scoring between the 50th and 99th centile on the *School and College Ability Tests, Form III-A, Verbal Score.* Four classes of English IV were studied. There were two teachers, each of whom taught one experimental and one control class. *Ss* spent four days reading and studying *Antigone.* Experimental *Ss* were encouraged to think and search in different directions for relevant meanings in *Antigone;* teachers encouraged students to discover and discuss personal meanings. Control *Ss* were asked routine questions on *Antigone* leading to a "right," or conventional answer. After reading the play, each *S* wrote a forty-minute essay test and took a twenty-five item objective multiple-choice test. Three judges read the essay answers for awareness of conflicts, response to ideas, exploration of two conflicting points of view, and use of past experience and rational thinking. Estimated reliability of the average scores of the three judges was .83. The content of the multiple-choice questions was planned so as not to lend bias in favor of the experimental group. For both the essay and the objective examination, *Ss* given the presentation facilitating divergent thinking processes performed significantly better than did the *Ss* in the control group. Sex differences appeared in the objective examination, but not in the essay examination. There was a teacher effect on the objective examination, but not on the essay. The superiority in performance of *Ss* in the experimental approach suggested a transfer effect of a teaching strategy using divergent thinking. Because of the superiority of the total experimental group over the control group, the investigators recommended a reappraisal of teaching methods as well as a reevaluation of literature textbooks used with secondary school students.

Milgrim (1967) compared classics and contemporary works of literature as they might affect the attitudes of twelfth-grade students in urban areas toward certain moral values. Four classes and two teachers were used; each teacher taught a section of classics and a section of contemporary literature. In the classics course, students read *Job, Hamlet, The Inferno,* and *The Odyssey.* In the contemporary course, students read *Arrowsmith, Giants in the Earth, Lord of the Flies,* and *The Plague.* Before and after

reading and discussing the books, students took the Robert Havighurst and Hilda Taba *Student Beliefs Test*, a test measuring attitude toward friendliness, honesty, loyalty, moral courage, and responsibility. Analysis of covariance revealed only one significant difference (10 per cent level) between students reading classics and students reading contemporary works; this difference was on the trait responsibility. As measured by the *Student Beliefs Test*, contemporary works proved at least as effective as classics in affecting attitudes toward certain moral values.

Nelms (1967) conducted a study to determine what characteristics of poetry might be significantly related to the evaluative responses of a selected group of adolescents. Procedure involved 120 randomly selected poems, a sample of one hundred poems from high school textbooks supplemented by twenty more recent poems. Analyses were made of two types of scores: one on the appeal of the poem for a panel of tenth-grade students; the other on the poem's characteristics as estimated by a panel of sophisticated readers. The student raters, students from the University High School, Iowa City, were chosen using an informal stratified sampling technique. The rating sheets used by students were patterned on the format of Osgood's semantic differential. Seven judges, sophisticated readers, rated the poems on ten characteristics such as poetic merit, seriousness of tone, didacticism, emotional appeal, and so on. Experienced teachers classified the poems as to their topical interest. The relative appeal of the subject matter of the poem was suggested by the student's rank ordering of categories of poems. Three groups of poems—the 10 per cent rated highest, the 10 per cent rated lowest, and a group of modern poems—were studied in detail by the investigator. Regression analyses, close examination of poems liked and disliked, etc., suggested that *Ss* tended to prefer poems with narrative interest. Appeal of subject matter was a considerable factor: *Ss*' evaluations were highly related to a combination of masculine interest, realism, and emotional vs. rational appeal. Clarity and comprehension were important factors in *Ss*' judgments: there was a negative relationship between *Ss*' evaluations and complex syntax. There was no evidence to support a contention that *Ss* preferred poetry with regular rhyming schemes and strong rhythmic patterns. Good modern poems seemed to fare better than "classics." The quality of the poetry did not seem related to *Ss*' evaluations. There was low immediate interest in the brief lyric poem.

Purves (1968) reported a controlling point of view or framework for working with students' responses to literature through the introduction of various activities and responses. As a result of his original research, Purves summarizes the elements of writing about a literary work as being the elements of (1) engagement-involvement, (2) perception, (3) interpretation, and (4) evaluation. He makes two disclaimers: that the elements are not exhaustive and that the elements are not taxonomical. Included in the report are the use of the elements in research and implications for teaching.

Oral Expression

DeSousa (1967) tested the effect of training on listening ability of seventh-grade students. Three groups were used: an experimental group receiving purposive listening training, an isolated-control group which received instruction in literature, and a control group receiving no treatment. There were ninety students assigned randomly to the three groups. During a four-week period, *Ss* in the experimental group studied twenty specific skill lessons in listening; the study materials emphasized significant details, main ideas, and following directions. The isolated-control group studied twenty

lessons in a Scholastic literature unit, *Small World*, with no attention to listening skills. The control group did not participate in a treatment situation. Listening was tested by *Sequential Tests of Educational Progress: Listening Section.* Form A was used as the pretest; Form 3B, as the posttest. The listening training produced significant differences in measured listening ability: the experimental group performed better than the isolated-control group or the control group. DeSousa concluded that listening abilities were amenable to instruction in the seventh grade.

Mosely (1967) studied English teachers' perceptions of certain oral activities in seventh- through twelfth-grade classrooms. Data were from a questionnaire sent to a representative sample consisting of 137 secondary school English teachers. The teachers responding to the questionnaire thought their undergraduate preparation in speech an important factor influencing use of speech activities and that courses in speech should be included in undergraduate courses for English teachers. They thought the ability to teach oral skills influential in determining the use of speech activities in the classroom. They thought the English classroom to be the best place to teach oral English, believing that skills in writing and in speaking could not be separated. Despite the fact that many of the teachers had not had coursework in speech as part of their teacher education program, they were frequently asked to direct or judge some type of speech-oriented activity.

Reading

Roberts (1967) sought to determine understanding of allusions possessed by ninth-grade students in required reading in English class and to determine the relationship of grade-point average, reading achievement, scholastic aptitude, and sex to a knowledge of allusions. Subjects were 270 ninth-grade students at Jefferson Junior High School, Columbia, Missouri. The investigator wrote a test of multiple-choice items using one hundred allusions randomly selected from allusions in the Harcourt, Brace textbook *Adventures in Reading.* The students correctly identified the meanings of approximately 50 per cent of the allusions on the test (the mean for all subjects was 52.8). There were no statistically significant differences between boys and girls on the test. Three coefficients of correlation were significant ($p<.01$): .859 between a knowledge of allusions and achievement in reading, .786 between the test of allusions and scholastic aptitude, and .674 between the test of allusions and total grade-point average.

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